VI. THE CHINESE WRITTEN LANGUAGE

● 212 Despite the fact that the Chinese people in this region speak difference Chinese dialects, the fact still remains that they use one and the same system of writing. China's written language consists of thousands of uniformly understood logographs or "characters" as they are commonly called. They can be understood only with reference to their ancient forms.

A. Pictographs

Chinese characters are traditionally classified into six main categories, the first of which is pictographs. The characters in this category all originated from simple pictures: jih ⊙ (now written 日) is the character for "the sun"; yüeh ☽ (now written 月) is the character for "the moon," etc. However, they have long lost their function of picturing things and become merely conventionalized visual symbols of spoken words.

B. Ideographs

The second category is that of the ideographs, which are characters indicating in a diagrammatic manner simple ideas, as shang 上 for "up, above," hsia 下 for "down, below," i 一 for "one," erh 二 for "two," san 三 for "three," etc. Pictographs and ideographs, presumably bases of ancient Chinese characters, however, amount to only one-tenth of the entire stock of China's written symbols.

C. Compound Ideographs

• 212 The third category is that of the compound ideographs or characters whose meanings are determined by the combined meanings of their component parts, as ming 明 , which is a combination of the "sun" and "moon," stands for "bright"; hsin 信 , which is a combination of "man" and "word," hence, the "words of a man" stands for "honesty."

D. Phonetic Loan Characters

The fourth category is that of phonetic loan characters. These characters were all borrowed from existing words homophonous with the new ones for which written symbols had to be coined. For example, when a written symbol had to be created for the new word lai, meaning "to come," instead of resorting to pictographic or ideographic devices for the coining of such a symbol, the old character 來 , meaning "barley," also similarly pronounced, was borrowed for that purpose. Often such a borrowed character displaced the original source. Thus, 來 is now used exclusively to mean "to come" rather than "barley." Similarly, ch'i 其 , the third personal pronoun, is now used invariably as such rather than as a symbol for "basket," the meaning of the original word similarly written and similarly pronounced.

E. Phonetic Compounds

Phonetic compounds constitute the fifth and perhaps the most numerous category of Chinese

212 characters. They consist of two portions, a "signific" or meaning portion, and a "phonetic" or pronunciation portion. The former reveals the general meaning while the latter indicates the pronunciation of the compound. Thus, jan 燃 "to burn" has huo 火 "fire" as its signific, and jan 然 "so, thus" as its phonetic. Similarly, t'ang 糖 "sugar" has mi 米 "rice, cereal" as its signific, and t'ang 唐 "bold talk" as its phonetic. It may be pointed out here that the phonetic element of such compounds may or may not have been a "phonetic loan compound," that the pronunciation of the phonetic may or may not be exactly identical with that of the compound even on the basis of ancient Chinese pronunciation, and that the meaning indicated by the signific is at best categorical rather than minutely accurate.

F. Derivative Characters

The last of the six categories consists of what may be called derivative characters, the origin of which is still uncertain. Some scholars think that the characters of the category resulted from graphic inversion, such as lao 老 "aged, old" and k'ao 考 "aged, old"; others think that they resulted from changes brought about by modifications in sounds accompanied by modifications in meanings, such as heng 亨 "propitious" and hsiang 享 "to enjoy." At any rate, this is the smallest category.

VII. CHINESE SCRIPT AND THE HIGH INCIDENCE OF ILLITERACY

It is true that written Chinese is uniformly understood throughout the country and has created

212 no difficulty for literate Chinese in communicating ideas to one another regardless of their dialectal affiliation. But it is also true that although Chinese characters might have been devised for writing the spoken language in ancient times, now the great majority of symbols have become merely conventionalized written equivalents of individual spoken words. Some of the characters for most commonly used words such as 鹽 "salt" and 鐵 "iron," for instance, consist of twenty-four and twenty-one strokes respectively. To say the very least about them, they are time-consuming for the average Chinese to learn and memorize. As there are thousands of characters in everyday use, many of which are comparable in complexity and clumsiness, it should be apparent that it will take an average person many years to become adequately literate. It is entirely possible and highly probable that there is a definite connection between the complicated and clumsy Chinese script and the high incidence of illiteracy in China, although other equally convincing factors, too, must have contributed substantially to that fact.

VIII. LITERARY CHINESE

Besides the many different dialects, many of which have their own written counterparts of varying degrees of completeness, there is yet another language in China known as the literary language, as it is usually called by Western writers It is the language of China's undying classics and owes its preservation to the inflexible and conservative system of writing of the country. As such, it has no standard pronunciation of its own.

212 In other words, it has as many standard of pronunciation as there are dialects in China. That is to say that if a passage written in literary Chinese is read by a speaker of Northern or Southwestern Mandarin, Kan-Hakka, Cantonese or Southern Min, it will sound like the dialect he speaks. Moreover, in grammar and syntax, literary Chinese is so different from any of the dialects that it is almost a different language, entirely free from the influences of the changes that have taken place in the dialects. Hence, it is possible for a lettered Chinese at the same time to speak his own dialect and write literary Chinese without any strange feeling on his part at all. As a language, literary Chinese is noted for its conciseness, frequently leaving out many things which are ordinarily expressed, thus creating a kind of ambiguous terseness all its own, requiring its readers to fill in the missing elements as they go along. This characteristic accounts for the reason why a passage written in literary Chinese, when read aloud, can seldom be fully understood by a listener even though he may speak the dialect of the person reading.

Despite such a shortcoming, literary Chinese has been exerting a tenacious influence on the Chinese, especially the lettered segment of the population. It is literary Chinese that has kept China's classics alive and perpetuated the many pithy dicta of wisdom unsurpassed in the living language of the Chinese people despite dialectal barriers of any kind. Although the written national language has been gaining wider and wider acceptance, the great majority of government

212 and commercial organizations are still using literary Chinese in the transaction of their routine business.

IX. LANGUAGE REFORMS

212 185 Attempts to introduce language reforms in China began on a nationwide basis with the movement to unify the national language shortly after the establishment of the Chinese Republic in 1911. The movement was followed closely by efforts to reform the written language. Those who advocated such reforms were of the opinion that since the characters were so complicated and time-consuming for the average person to learn, and since literary Chinese was so unrealistic and impractical, something had to be done to make the written language of Chinese more effective, so that it could be within the grasp of the average Chinese citizen in a relatively short period of time.

A. Phonetic Symbols

One type of reform advocated the use of phonetic symbols as an aid to the illiterate to learn to read. However, since the sole function of these symbols is phonetic, they are effective when they are used as a guide to correct pronunciation in accordance with the standard of the national language for the purpose of leveling down dialectal differences in pronunciation. They are helpful only to those who have not yet acquired such a knowledge. They cannot possibly add anything to the attempt to make the Chinese language system simpler or more readily

accessible to the illiterate masses.

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B. Alphabetization

Another type of reform advocated was the alphabetization of Chinese in order to get away from ideographic writing. As a matter of fact, the use of the Roman alphabet for the transcription of sounds of the Chinese language is no novel suggestion. As early as the beginning of the sixteenth century, Matteo Ricci, a Jesuit missionary to China, began to transcribe the then Mandarin sounds with the Roman alphabet on the basis of the speech sounds of his own native Italian language. Later, other system of romanization were devised by others to meet the needs of those speaking other Western languages. The most widely used system among English-speaking peoples is the so-called Wade-Giles system, originally devised by Sir Thomas Wade, a member of the British legation in China, and later revised by the British sinologist, Herbert A. Giles. Another system in current use in this country is devised by the linguists at Yale University, and is known as the Yale System.

In 1928 the Chinese Ministry of Education adopted a system of romanization known as Gwoyeu Romatzyh or National Language Romanization, devised by a group of Chinese linguists and intellectual leaders such as Dr. Yuen Ren Chao, Dr. Lin Yutang, and others. Its distinguishing feature is that instead of indicating Chinese intonation by means of superior figures or diacritical marks, it spells the different tones

of Chinese words with different letters: mai (second tone, Wade-Giles mai^2) "to bury"; mae (third tone, Wade-Giles mai^3) "to buy"; may (fourth tone, Wade-Giles mai^4) "to sell."

Between 1929 and 1931 another system of romanization known as Latinxua was devised mainly by Professor A. A. Dragunov, a linguist of Leningrad, primarily for teaching the Chinese workers in the USSR to read. It has been very popular, for obvious reasons, with the Chinese Communists, who have been doing all they can to promote and popularize it. However, since the system makes no attempt, except in an ad hoc manner, to distinguish tones in Chinese, it is not only inadequate and unsatisfactory, but often misleading.

C. Simplified Characters

Yet another type of proposal advocated the simplification of Chinese characters, especially the more complicated ones in common use, by reducing the number of their strokes. Adocates of this proposal believed that a simplified system of writing would make the whole process of learning to read and write Chinese much easier and less time-consuming. For example, ts'ai 纔 "then" has been reduced to look like 才, and t'ieh 鐵 "iron" to look like 铁. If a satisfactory principle of simplification that is philologically sound can be worked out, so that the simplified characters, if necessary, can be identified with the original characters, the adoption of such a system may turn out to be a boon to China's millions of illiterate people in their

1:Stanford U. S-4 5 1956 AF 12 North China
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effort to become literate.

D. Basic Chinese

A fourth type of proposal advocated the reduction of the number of characters to be meant for general use in order to simplify the written language. For example, the series of textbooks for teaching the illiterate compiled by Dr. Yen Yang-ch'u, leader of the Mass Education Movement, who is better known abroad as James Y. C. Yen, represents an effort made in this direction. On the basis of some 1,200 characters chosen by him in terms of their frequency, he compiled texts that he believed would enable China's illiterate people to meet their basic needs in expression. As another effort made more or less in the same direction, we may mention the list of characters chosen by Hung Shen, the famous dramatist, in 1935 he published his Method of Teaching and Using 1,100 Basic Chinese Characters. Instead of basing his choice of characters on frequency and limiting their usefulness and expressiveness to the rudimentary plane, he chose them on the criteria of their flexibility in forming compounds with other characters and their adequacy for general use in everyday situations.

VII. DEVELOPMENTS UNDER THE COMMUNISTS

The Chinese Communists have been cautious in their efforts to reform the Chinese language. They frequently quote Stalin as saying that the

212 language of a people cannot be artifically changed
185 and that the evolution of any language has to follow a natural course.[1] However, to combat illiteracy the Communists also see the immediate need of simplifying the Chinese written language. In this regard the government policy is based on Mao Tse-tung's statement in his On New Democracy that, "under certain conditions, the written language of China must be reformed."[2] Envisaged as the ultimate goal of language reform is the complete Latinization of the Chinese written language. In other words, the characters will be replaced by the Latin alphabet. Communist promoters of Latinization often cite Lenin's pronouncement that, "Latinization is the great revolution of the East"[3] in order to justify their argument.

198 The Communists are trying to cultivate a politically conscious proletariat in China. China's spoken language, as reflected in songs, plays, and speeches, is becoming more proletarian and drifting away from the set phrases and expressions traditionally used by the intellectual class. Extensive use of professional jargon and local expressions is the vogue of the day. Political terms and scientific terms, particularly those of Russian origin, are apparently on the lips of every Chinese who has had Communist indoctrination. It must be noted that the Communists, in adopting many new terms heretofore unfamiliar to the average Chinese, are aware of the danger of corrupting the language. The People's Daily of Peking (the Pravda of China), in an editorial

1. See quotation and discussion in Ts'ao Po-han, Yu-wen Wen-t'i P'ing-lun Chi [Critical Essays on the Language Problem], Shanghai, Tung-fang shu-tien, 1954, p. 95.

2. [next page]

on June 6, 1951, urged the use of correct Chinese and stressed the need for the study of grammar so that "the Chinese language will not become corrupt and impure."[4] 198

In the movement to eradicate illiteracy, the current trend is to promote accelerated methods of language teaching and to standardize and formalize many simplified characters already in use by the people in their handwriting. The Peking government is applying little effort, however, to the popularization of Latinized Chinese. One of the most publicized methods to accelerate language learning was introduced in 1948 by Ch'i Chien-hua, a cultural cadre attached to the armed forces. Ch'i champions the use of the "National Phonetic Symbols" (not to be confused with the Gwoyeu Romatzyh discussed in foregoing sections of this chapter) as the "walking stick" for new learners. The phonetic symbols are employed as a pronunciation aid to the students. This method was said to be so successful that the Peking government in May 1952 recognized Ch'i's contribution by inviting him to the capital and awarding him a citation.[5] 212 185

Simplification of written characters has been given official blessing. When the Committee on

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2. Mao Tse-tung, Mao Tse-tung Hsüan-chi [Selected Works of Mao Tse-tung], Vol. II, Peking, Jen-min ch'u-pan-she, 1952, p. 680.

3. John de Francis, Nationalism and Language Reform in China, Princeton University Press, 1950, p. 90.

4. Quoted in Jen-min Chiao-yü [People's Education], (Monthly), Peking, March 1955, p.28.

5. [see next page]

212 the Study of Language Reform under the Ministry
185 of Education compiled 798 such simplified characters and recommended that they be adopted, the recommendation was given immediate attention. On May 1, 1955 the committee announced that 57 simplified characters would be adopted by six national periodicals for experimental purposes.[6] On October 15, 1955, an All-China Conference on Language Reform was called by the committee to revise and enlarge the proposed list of simplified characters.

The Latinization movement, although without much official promotion, is by no means dead. There are publications printed in this new form of Chinese. One ardent supporter of this movement, Ni Hai-shu, claimed that in 1954 there were over 300 such publications with a total circulation of about 500,000 already in the market.[7] In February 1952, magazines published in Peking frequently printed articles promoting the Latinization of Chinese.[8]

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5. [continued from previous page] People's Education, May 1952, p. 4.

6. Hua-ch'iao Jih-pao [China Daily News], New York, May 2, 1955, p. 1.

7. Ni Hai-shu Chung-kuo Yü-wen Ti Hsin-sheng [The Rebirth of the Chinese Language], Shanghai, Shih-tai shu-pao ch'u-pan-she, 1949, pp.458-59; also see John de Francis, op. cit., pp. 131-34.

8. Hsin-wen-tzu Pan-yüeh-k'an [New Language Semimonthly], Shanghai, February 16, 1952, p. 28.

212 There are other recent developments in
185 language reform. One of them is the attempt to standardize the use of punctuation marks. On October 5, 1951, the Government Administration Council in Peking issued a directive on the correct use of punctuation marks.[9] Since that time the general trend has been moving toward standardization.

Another recent development is the practice of writing Chinese horizontally and from left to right. Such a practice is not new, but the Peking government is the first regime to sanction it. Following lengthy discussions on such a practice, national publications like the Enlightenment Daily and New China Monthly, since January 1, 1955, have been printing their texts horizontally.

563 As to the languages of minority nationality
212 groups, the over-all Communist policy is to help them create their own written scripts. The theory is that these people must be given their own languages, and then it will be easier for them to learn Chinese (Latinized Chinese, most probably Since there is no concentration of any minority nationals in North China, the study and use of languages of minority nationalities, therefore, are confined to such institutions as the Central College for Minority Nationalities and the medical school of Peking University.

XI. SPEAKERS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

191 Before 1949, the use of foreign languages,

9. Jen-min Shou-ts'e, 1952 [People's Handbook, 1952], Shanghai, Ta-kung pao, 1952, p.437.

871 the most controversial points for further
186 elaboration. One is the so-called "spirit of nationalism" which the Ministry of Education at Nanking defined as the spirit based on San-min Chu-i, the Three Principles of the People expounded by Dr. Sun Yat-sen (See chapter on Political Dynamics in this handbook). Thus a mild reform was adopted as the central theme of the Nationalist philosophy for education. The other controversial point is the extent of government supervision over educational institutions. Official explanation stressed the supervisory function of the government in the system of education and denied that this implied any authoritarian control.[2]

874 Under the Nationalist government, efforts
212 were exerted to promote adult education and combat illiteracy. Outstanding records were made by such people as James Yen, (an internationally known promoter of mass education) who organized drives to eradicate illiteracy, and Huang Yen-p'ei, now a member of the Communist central government, who did a great deal for the development of vocational education in China. Since most of these features are discussed in anyone of the numerous books on education in China, it is enough to say here that had it not been for a decade of war, general education in China would have

2. Ibid., p. 24. For other influential theories on education expounded during World War II in China see Chan-shih Chiao-yü Lun-chi [Discussions on Wartime Education], Shanghai, Sheng-huo chiao-yü she, 1938.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF12 North China AF12

874 been far more developed than it was in 1949 on the
812 eve of the Communist seizure of power.

871 The application of the broad principles of education under the Nationalist government resulted in a system of regular and specialized schooling as pictured in the following chart.

1:Stanford U. S-4, 5 1956 AF12 North China AF12

C. Labor Education and Recreation

464 212 The overwhelming majority of China's workers are illiterate. One of the basic aims of the Communist regime has been to remedy this situation and raise the technical level among the masses to ensure the success of the reconstruction program. Workers have been encouraged to avail themselves of the training schools run by factories, mines, and other enterprises. In the first year of the Communist regime, 43 per cent of the workers in Peking were reported to be attending night classes. Over 172 night schools were in operation in Tientsin during the same period. Seventy-nine per cent of the workers in the Taiyuan Machinery Shop were illiterate in 1950, but this figure had been reduced to 11 per cent in 1955 after authorities adopted the "acclerated method" of learning Chinese characters.[38]

466 461 Peking was the first city to establish "cultural centers" for the workers. Each "cultural center" has a library, a recreation hall, and many other recreational facilities. In 1952, workers took part for the first time in the national athletic meeting held in Peking. In 1950, eleven newspapers and periodicals were printed for workers, and most of the contributors were members of the working class.

Despite the efforts of the Communists to

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38. People's Daily, May 1, 1955, p. 2; Worker's Daily, Oct. 5, 1953, p. 3.

697 dard was fixed according to the skill and physical strength of the prisoners.

The policy of co-ordinating compulsory labor with political education was followed by the Shansi People's Court in carrying out the Reform-through-labor policy. After a period of political indoctrination, the prisoners accepted the control measures and met the production standard. For instance, the prisoners who dug coal in Taiyuan suburban area steadily increased the quantity of coal they were able to dig. By September 1951, the average amount of coal dug by each prisoner each day was nearly three-tenth of a ton. As of 1951, the Communists allege, the labor corps in Shansi Province were self-sufficient and, since 1952, have produced "surplus value" for the Chinese People's Government.[22]

697 212 The eradication of illiteracy has been a continuing process in Shansi provincial prisons, according to the Communists. As of March 1955, of the illiterate prisoners in the Shansi provincial jail, 71 per cent had acquired a knowledge of from 700 to 1,000 Chinese characters.[23]

VI. MASS LABOR PROJECTS IN THE NORTH

653 ### A. Water Conservation

22. Cheng Chu-yüan, The Slavery System of the Chinese Communists, Hong Kong, 1952, p. 79.

23. NCNA, Peking, March 30, 1955; quoted in SCMP, No. 1020, p. 25.

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933)1954 AF 12 North China AF 12

CHAPTER IX

Education

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THE PROGRESS made in education was one of the reasons why Ting Hsien was named a model hsien. Four hundred and forty-seven schools and 18,666 students were reported to the hsien Bureau of Education in 1928. However, in spite of these favorable statistics, several sample studies showed that some 80 per cent of the population over six years of age were illiterate at the time of our study. Approximately one-third of the males over six years of age were literate but only about 3 per cent of the females. That very definite progress was being made on the literacy problem in some areas was shown by the figures for the 11–24 year age group in Chai Ch'eng. Fifty-three per cent of that group were literate, 65 per cent of the males and 36 per cent of the females.

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Teaching her people to read was and still is one of China's biggest problems. It was this problem that the Mass Education Movement was attacking in Ting Hsien. It was their hope that, using the Movement's Thousand Character system, they could, within three years after they had begun their hsien wide program, by 1934, teach most if not all of the hsien's seventy thousand young illiterates to read. By that system, which actually taught some 1,200 characters in its beginning course, a person could, in two months' time (later six weeks), become literate enough to read simple books, write letters, and keep accounts. A second or post-graduate course covered another 1,200 characters.

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In a study of the characters used in various kinds of written material and their comparative frequency rates in a million and a half characters the Mass Education Movement found that if a person could recognize nine characters he could read one out of seven characters in simple material. Seventy-eight characters would cover 50 per cent, 352 characters 70 per cent, and 1,169 characters 91 per cent. The Movement therefore based its first series of lessons on 1,200 characters. The combination of the characters into binomial and trinomial terms gave a total vocabulary of well over 2,000 words. In printed material published by the

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933) 1954 AF 12 North China AF 12

192 212 Movement phonetic symbols giving the pronunciation, both sound and tone, were printed beside any new or unfamiliar characters. The meaning of the character was given by the context.

It was generally estimated that some five thousand characters were needed for general newspaper reading.

871 212 By the end of 1931 there were People's Schools (Mass Education classes) in all the 453 villages and in the 19 satellite villages. More than 20,000 students were enrolled. The estimated cost was 40 cents per pupil. This covered classroom, equipment, light, fuel, texts, materials, teaching, and supervision. By 1932 it was possible, in some villages, to organize a campaign to enroll all of the remaining illiterate young adults and "eliminate illiteracy" in those villages. By 1934 the hsien government had taken over the promotion of the literacy classes. That year there were 844 classes in 416 villages with an enrolment of 21,170, 14,080 males and 7,090 females.[1]

212 The 80 per cent of illiteracy for the hsien was determined fr figures for several sample groups of families, 515 in the Experi District and 5,255 in the 1st District, and from special literacy studies of the 11–50 age group in 500 families in the Experimental District, of the 11–24 age group in the 366 families in Chai Ch'eng, of 150 of the 362 families in Tung T'ing, and of 1,633 families in the city and 536 families in the three suburbs. Those who had had at least two years of lower primary school, or two months in a People's School, i.e., had completed the first Thousand Character course, were classed as literate. In the 500 family study individuals were given a test in which they were required to recognize and write a representative sample of ten of the characters used in the Thousand Character readers. If they failed to make a perfect score they were classed as part literate but were not included in the literate group.

The 5,255 families had the lowest literacy figures: males 5 years of age and over, 30.3 per cent, females 1.7 per cent, total 16.5 per cent. For the 400 farm families the figures were males 37 per cent, females 4.0 per cent, total 21.6 per cent. Chai Ch'eng, where the first Mass Education schools were opened in 1926, had the highest literacy figure for the

1. Dr. Y. C. James Yen, head of the Mass Education Movement, has stated that during the war years 1937–1945 over 45,000,000 people learned to read by the Thousand Character System taught in classes promoted by the Mass Education Department of the Government Ministry of Edu tion.

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933) 1954 AF 12 North China AF 12

11–24 year group: males 65 per cent, females 36 per cent, total 53 per cent. The Tung T'ing figures were only slightly smaller: males 60 per cent, females 37 per cent, total 49 per cent. The highest figures for any one age group were in the 10–14 year group in the city. For that group the literacy figures were males 81.8 per cent, females 19.0 per cent, total 54.5 per cent, but it will be noted that the figure for the females was only about half those for Chai Ch'eng and Tung T'ing.

Literacy and family income were closely related. The effect of the amount of the family income, measured by the size of the family farm, on the educational opportunities of the family is shown very strikingly in the 515 families. Only 56.6 per cent of the families with less than 50 mu of farm land had any literate members. In the 50–99 mu group the figure was 98.8 per cent. All the families in the 100 mu and over group had at least one literate member. The effect of the size of the family farm on the proportion of the family members who were literate is shown by the following figures for the 11–50 year age group in the 500 families in the Experimental District. The figures also show how the increase, through the years, in the number of village schools and greater interest in education had increased the literacy of the younger people.

Land	*Per Cent Literate*	*Age*	*Per Cent Literate*
Under 25 mu	16.9	11–14	57.3
25–49	31.7	15–19	51.2
50–74	45.6	20–24	39.1
75–99	51.0	25–29	28.8
100 mu and over	58.1	30–34	22.1
Average	27.7	35–39	18.2
		40–44	22.2
		45–49	20.3

The same effect of age is shown by the literacy figures for the males and females in the 400 farm families.

	Per Cent Literate			*Per Cent Literate*	
Age	*Males*	*Females*	*Age*	*Males*	*Females*
5–10	21	6.5	51–60	35	–
11–20	55	11.5	61–70	34	–
21–30	43	3.1	71–80	18	–
31–40	30	1.3	Over 80	–	–
41–50	25	0.6	Total	37	4.0

2: Gamble S-5 (1926-1933) 1954 AF 12 North China AF 12

871 The following figures show how, for the 515 families, the average number of students per family and the years in school increased and 212 the average age at which the students entered school decreased as the 565 size of the family farm increased.

Mu	*Aver. with Ed.*	*Per Cent of Family*	*Aver. Years in School*	*Aver. Age Entered School*
Under 50	1.1	18	3.9	8.8
50–99	3.5	33	6.1	7.8
100 and over	4.5	35	7.3	7.2

Where the head of the family could read the literacy figure was 49 per cent. Where he could not read it was only 25.6 per cent.

The very definite effect of the father's occupation on literacy is shown by the following figures.

Occupation	*Per Cent Literacy*
Education, government, military	71
Merchant	48
Farmer	33
Manual laborer	18

871 China's old educational system was based on the Chinese classics and aimed to prepare the students for the government examinations. The local district examinations were held in Ting Hsien in the examination halls that, during the latter part of our study, were the headquarters of the Mass Education Movement. The old style education was given privately, by a tutor in a wealthy family, by a scholar who earned his living teaching a group of pupils who came to his home, or in schools maintained by some villages.

The first modern school of which we found a record was a private school opened in 1894. Villages began to establish schools about 1902 but it was not until after the Republic was established in 1912 that rapid progress was made. The influence of the magistrate Sun Fa-hsü, appointed in 1914, was especially strong in the establishment of schools. Many temples were given up at that time and their buildings were taken over for the new schools.

China's general educational system was a six-six-four division, elementary school six years, middle school six years, college four years. The elementary school period was divided at first, lower primary three years,

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village schools the old type of teacher was still employed to teach the Confucian texts, and so they decided to open a school to train teachers to serve in the villages under the political headquarters of the Fifth district of Wan Ping Hsien. Although the experiment was not particularly successful, yet it is very impor tant as an experiment, because previously teachers for rural schools have always been trained in the cities, and no town of the size of Ching Ho has done anything towards training teachers for its own schools.

The adequacy of a public school as an institution for improvement can only be measured by the percentage of literates in the in the town, and by the percentage of children of school age who are registered as pupils. The store population will naturally have a high percentage of literates because every clerk should be able to write a bill or make out an account, and all apprentices learn to do this. The following table gives a summary of literacy of the store population over ten years of age. We heve taken ten as the dividing line because children below that age still have a good chance of learning to read and write :—

TABLE XLIX. LITERACY OF STORE POPULATION

Literacy.	Total		Male		Female	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Cannot read	180	31.0	138	25.3	42	100.0
Can read	154	26 3	154	28.5	0	0
Can write	250	42.7	250	46.2	0	0
Total	584	100.0	542	100.0	42	100.0
Unknown	2		2			

6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

212 Of the 42 women in the stores none can read, and there are also 138 men who cannot read. These persons are mostly cooks and manual workers who have very little to do with the running of the business. In this survey our test of literacy has been ability to read the popular type of newspaper, and the person who can only read a few characters has not been counted as literate.

Among the family population the percentage of literates is very low there being only 429 persons of the 1,428 family persons over ten years of age who are able to read a newspaper. The general impression has been that only about 5% of the population of China can read and write, but from our investigation in Ching Ho we find that 8[illegible]% of all the population able to read, and the proportion of males is much higher, 55.5%. But as women are concerned the statement holds good as only 4% of the women in Ching Ho can be called literate.

In this consideration of the question of literacy we have not included officials and teachers in our figures, because it is taken for granted that they are able to read ad write.

TABLE I. LITERACY OF FAMILY CIVILIAN POPULATION

LITERACY	TOTAL		MALE		FEMALE	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Can not read	999	69.7	324	44.7	675	96.0
Can read	429	30.3	401	55.3	28	4.0
Total	1,428	100.0	725	100.0	703	100.0

6: Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929)1930 AF12 North China AF12

875 town or in the nearby neighbourhoods. The majority of them had some years in a higher primary school, but there were some who had only been to a lower primary school and three who had not attended any modern school.

TABLE LIX. QUALIFICATIONS OF NORMAL SCHOOL STUDENTS

QUALIFICATIONS	NO. OF PERSONS
Higher Primary	13
Lower primary	5
Private education	3
Total	21

The training course was completed in March 1929, and most of the graduates have been appointed to village schools in the district. There has not yet been time enough to see the results of their work, and to criticise the training course as a whole, but we should consider that a three month's training course after private school or lower primary school education is certainly not enough to fit any person for teaching work. There have been several incidents between teachers and students, and the real spirit of the school has been undermined by unfriendly action, and political interference.

4. Social Education.

212 873 Very little attention has been given to the

6:Young et. al. E-5 (1928-1929) 1930 AF12 North China AF12

question of adult education, no lectures have been arranged; no Mass Education school has been opened; and there is no library. During the month of October a night school for adults was announced to be run by the only teacher, a low grade man, then in charge of the school. According to the andouncements the purpose of the evening school was to help those be tween the ages of 10 and 40 years who had not had the opportunity of learning to read and write, to learn the Thousand Characters, some arithmetic, and also to receive instruction in the Three Principles. The course was to last three months, and the students were to meet each evening from 6-30 to 8-30, but long before the end of this period the course was dropped, chiefly because the students were too busy to attend, and also owing to the poor type of teacher in whose care the work was put. Since then nothing further has been attempted.

We made further enquiries to see if the negligence to provide cultural facilities by the community was remedied by the people individually. As stated in Chap. V there are thirty four popular periodicals and newspapers supplied in the town and only ten stores have books of any description. Of the 371 families only one family takes a newspaper, and thirty families possess books. In a survey such as this it is difficult to count all the books, but so far as our information goes seventeen reported that they have a few books, between one and ten, eight had more than ten and less than one hundred, and seven reported that they had more than one hundred books.

7: Gamble S-5 (1926-1927) 1933 AF12 North China AF12

ported expenditure for one or more of these items. Most of the 81 families with no expenditure under this heading had incomes of less than $40 a month. Forty-five per cent of the families with incomes below $40 spent nothing for education; but only 3.5 per cent of the families with incomes of more than $40 a month. The average expenditure of the different income groups ranged from 1 cent to $207.35 per year. It was less than $1.15 until the family income was more than $35 a month; and ordinarily was not over $7 a year until the family income was more than $70 a month. For the groups with incomes of more than $125 a month, the average was generally over $100 a year. (Table 34.)

For the families reporting, the average expenditure was less than 70 cents a year for the groups below $20 a month; and less than $2 for the income groups below $35. Over $40 a month, the number reporting was so nearly 100 per cent of the group that there was little difference in the average for the families reporting and for the entire group.

The amount spent for education was less than one-half of 1 per cent of the budget, for the income groups below $35 a month; and between 1 and 2 per cent for the groups between $35 and $100 a month. For four of the six groups above $100 a month, the proportion varied from 3.4 to 5.5 per cent. For the $175 group, however, the average was 9.5; while for the $125 group it was 10.3 per cent of the average family budget. The averages for these two groups were large, as they included families with children in college. (Table 35.)

No attempt was made to study the literacy of the families included in our survey, but the number that bought

7: Gamble S-5 (1926-1927) 1933 AF12 North China AF12

newspapers some time during the year is possibly a fair index of the literacy of the older generation. The number was 134, or 47 per cent of the families. All of the families with incomes over $100 a month bought newspapers; more than three-quarters of the families with incomes between $40 and $100 a month; but only one-quarter of those with incomes of less than $40. For 20 families, the expenditure was less than 5 cents per year; for 61, almost half the families reporting, the amount was less than 5 cents a month; and for 73 families, it was less than 10 cents a month. For only seven families was it more than $1 a month; and only one family spent more than $2 a month. It is evident, therefore, that few of the families could have been regular subscribers. Furthermore, the monthly figures show that few families bought newspapers every month of the year.

The number of children in school seems to be a good indication of the literacy of the younger generation. Sixty-two boys and 31 girls attended school some time during the year. This was about one-quarter of the children of school age. There were also 15 adults who were studying. Eighty-two families, 30 per cent, had one or more members going to school. Six of these families paid no tuition. For 14 families, the tuition was for an adult member, rather than for a child. As with newspapers, a sharp dividing line for school expenditure seems to be drawn between the groups receiving more than $40 a month income, and those receiving less than that amount. Below that amount, only 11 per cent of the families paid anything for tuition; but more than 55 per cent of the families receiving more than $40 a month paid something for school fees. The amounts paid for tuition

8: Lin E-5 (1927)1928 AF12 North China AF12

Only 45 of the resident workers were married. As shown in Table 20, 43 workers were married before the age of 30; of these, 26 were married before the age of 20. It is noteworthy that two workers were married at the young age of 14. Women, it seems, were married at a much younger age than men and they were all married before 25. But, on the whole, it appears from the table that most men and women were married between 16 and 20. Early marriage in China, though at present declining in modern cities, has been quite common in conservative country districts.

Age difference between husbands and wives was found to be as follows: same age 2; husbands older than wives 29, wives older than husbands 14. It seems that among the husbands who were older than their wives, the difference was usually one or two years. Late marriage among men is often due to their inability to support the family, but, in such late marriages, men usually get younger wives. Early marriage in the country districts often happens, when the parents want a daughter-in-law to help take charge of household affairs; in this case, a daughter-in-law somewhat older than the son is preferred.

Of the 86 workers, there were 12 illiterates and 74 literates. Of the latter, 47 were able to read newspapers and 27 were not. Only 22.7 or about one-fourth of the total number of literate workers had some sort of schooling. At the time of the investigation, 66 out of the 74 workers were attending the Workmen's School; the rest who were not were all over 25, which is the age limit set by the factory for compulsory education. There is no doubt that the Workmen's School renders a very useful service to the workers as it was found that at least 26 of the workers who could read newspapers have been educated there. And it is said that some of the literate workers had even begun to take interest in fiction and light literature.

II. INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF THE 86 RESIDENT WORKERS

As has been stated in Chapter II, the income of the workers in the Chiu Ta Factory consists of six items: (1) wages (2)

8: Lin E-5 (1927)1928 AF12 North China AF12

423 them had their own houses in Tangku. The property of others was owned jointly by the workers and their family members in their native places.

212 Table 32 shows the distribution of literates and illiterates among the members of the 61 families. Excluding children under seven, over two-thirds were illiterates, but even among the literates only 27 could manage to read daily newspapers. It was found that the latter had all received some formal education. The low educational standard of the workers having families may be attributed to two causes: first, they were older and have less aptitude for learning, and secondly, they had family affairs to take care of and less time for study. It was further found that of the 18 young girls of schooling age, only two were in the primary school. Those who did not attend any school were kept at home to help in domestic work.

Table 32.—Literacy and Illiteracy of the Members of 61 Families

Member relationship	Total number of persons	Number of illiterates	Number of Literates	
			Not being able to read newspaper	Being able to read newspaper
Workmen	61	27	13	21
Wives	58	58	—	—
Sons	38	28	7	3
Daughters	41	39	2	—
Fathers	2	1	—	1
Mothers	9	9	—	—
Brothers	8	5	2	1
Sisters	3	3	—	—
Daughters-in-law	2	2	—	—
Sister-in-law	1	1	—	—
Grandson	1	1	—	—
Nephews	2	1	—	1
Niece	1	1	—	—
Total	227	176[1]	24	27

[1] Including 54 children under 7

8: Lin E-5 (1927)1928 AF12 North China AF12

shown in Table 50. Excluding the two daughters-in-law-to-be, the earliest age of marriage was 14. Most girls were married before 20 and none of them among this group of families were married after 21. The difference of age between husband and wife is about 2 years either way.

The educational standard of the various classes of workers differs from one another. For instance, the work of the assistants is such that they all should receive some education and consequently no illiterate could be found among their class. Table 51 shows the distribution of literacy and illiteracy of the 50 workers to be 34 and 16 respectively. The percentage of illiteracy was higher among firemen and common workers than in the other two classes.

Table 51.—Literacy and Illiteracy of 50 Resident Workers

Class of workers	Total number of workers investigated	Illiterates	Literates	
			Those who can not read newspaper	Those who can read newspaper
Machanics	10	1	3	6
Firemen	4	3	—	1
Assistants	7	—	1	6
Common workers	29	12	10	7
All classes	50	16	14	20

It was further found that out of the 50 workers, 20 had received no education whatsoever, while the others were either graduates of primary schools or of private schools. Only seven of them were found at the time of investigation to attend the Workmen's School of the factory, the others being contented with little or no education.

The income of the Pacific workers as has been mentioned, is derived from four different sources (1) wages (2) allowance for working overtime (3) extra month's pay and (4) commutation of gifts. All these items of income of the 50 resident workers were confined to the yearly period, July 1926 to June 1927 and